

EECS 280 - Lecture 3

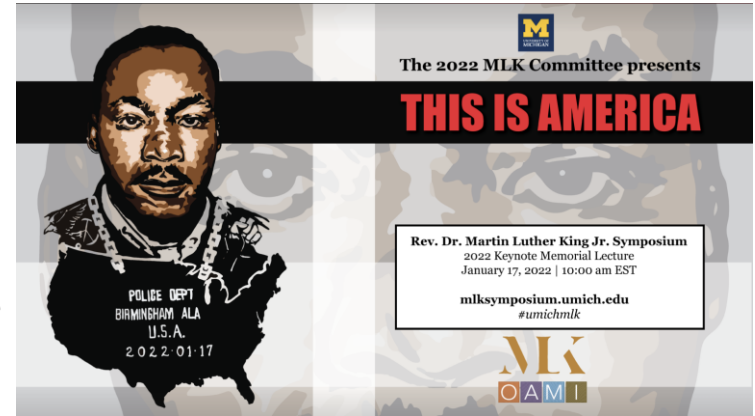
Pointers

https://eecs280staff.github.io/notes/03_Pointers.html



Announcements

- P1 due 1/19 (little over a week)
 - Will discuss a bit today
- Remember to fill stuff out!
 - CARES survey (0.5% of your total grade) by 1/26
 - Coaching form (Piazza @105)
 - Exam accommodations form
 - Exam conflict forms 1/28
- Labs start this week
- Office hours in full swing – see website
- No lecture / OH on Monday



Last Time

- Functions
 - What the call stack is, and how it works
- Procedural abstraction
 - Why we use so many files, and how to use them properly
 - `#include` .h files, pass .cpp files to compiler (setup in your IDE)

Today

- How to write effective tests
- Pointers
 - What they are and how to use them

Checking the REQUIRES Clause?

```
// REQUIRES: v is not empty
// EFFECTS: returns median of the numbers in v
double median(std::vector<double> v) {
    if (v.empty()) {
        // try to salvage the situation
    }
}
```

Don't do this.

```
// REQUIRES: v is not empty
// EFFECTS: returns median of the numbers in v
double median(std::vector<double> v) {
    assert(!v.empty()); // sound the alarms!
}
```

Do this.

assert([EXPRESSION])

- assert() is a programmer's friend for debugging
- Does nothing if EXPRESSION is true
- Exits and prints an error message if EXPRESSION is false



Triple check that the
REQUIRES clause so you
aren't being overly restrictive!

```
#include <cassert>
int main() {
    int x = 3;
    int y = 4;
    assert(x < y); // ok, does nothing
    assert(x > y); // crash with debug message
}
```

```
$ ./test
Assertion failed: (false), function main,
file test.cpp, line 6.
```

Properties of Procedural Abstraction

- Local
The implementation of an abstraction can be understood without examining any other abstraction implementation.
- Substitutable
You can replace one (correct) implementation of an abstraction with another (correct) one, without having to change the way the abstraction is used.

Separation of interface from implementation:
Only depend on interface, not implementation!

Substitutability Example

- Here's the current implementation in p1_library.cpp:

```
void sort(std::vector<double> &v) {  
    std::sort(v.begin(), v.end());  
}
```

- And let's say your mode function in stats.cpp uses sort:

```
double mode(vector<double> v) {  
    assert(!v.empty());  
    sort(v);  
    //...  
}
```

- If the staff changes the implementation of sort(), do you need to change your mode function? No!

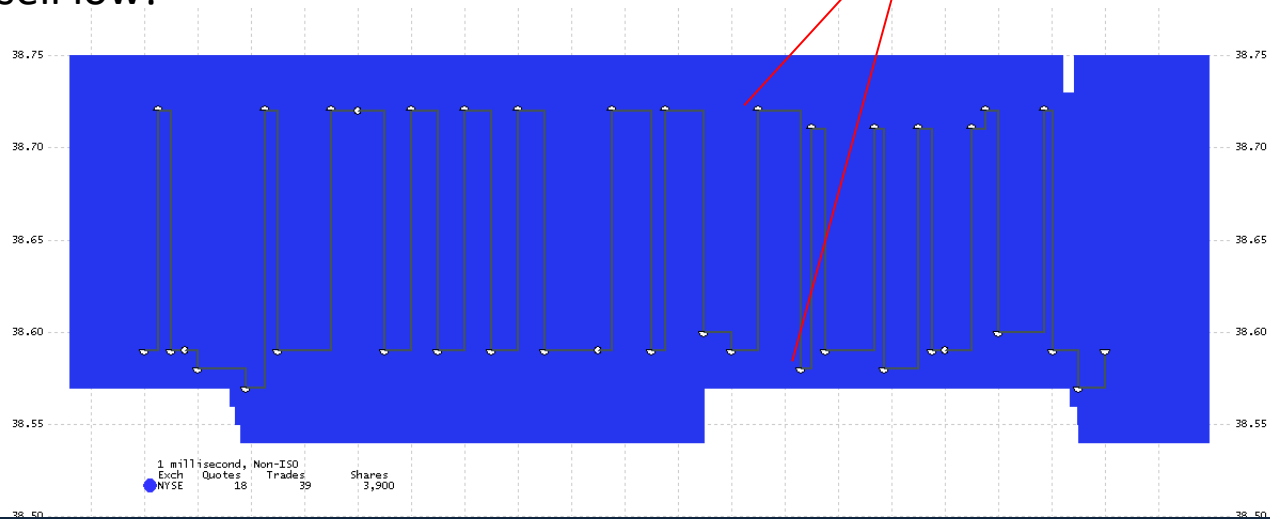
Agenda

- **Testing and debugging**
- Pointers

But I wrote it correctly!

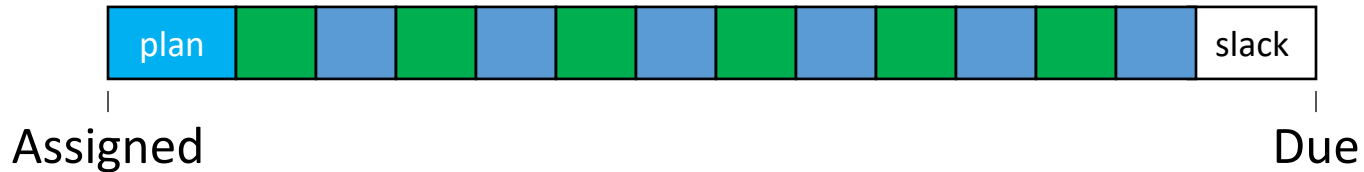
- Knight Capital Group: high-speed stock trading
 - Goal: buy low, sell high
- August 1, 2012: upgraded software algorithm
 - Bug: buy high, sell low!
- Cost \$440M

trades: buy high
then sell low



Motivation for Testing

- ▶ Super-linear relationship between amount of code and amount of bugs
 - ▶ More functionality, but also more connections between components



Projects in this Class

- Most of the test cases for projects are hidden!
 - You won't know what they are checking for
- You need to write good tests to convince **yourself** that it's going to work correctly
- For later projects (2-5), you will be graded on how effective your tests are at exposing possible bugs

Types of Testing

- Unit testing
 - One piece at a time (e.g., a function)
 - Find and fix bugs early! This saves you time!
 - Test smaller, less complex, easier to understand units.
 - You just wrote the code – so it's easier to debug.
- System testing
 - Entire project (code base)
 - Do this after unit testing
- Regression testing
 - Automatically run all unit and system tests after a code change

Unit tests

What's a good unit test for mode?

you don't need to care if someone break

~~A~~ mode({}) == 0 *the requires*

~~B~~ mode({"text"}) == CRASH

C) mode({2,2,3}) == 2

D) mode({3,2,2,3}) == 2

*we don't care run
wrong type of data*

- Consider test cases for the mode function from project 1...

```
// REQUIRES: v is not empty
// EFFECTS: Returns the mode of the numbers in v.
//          http://en.Wikipedia.org/wiki/Mode_(statistics)
double mode(std::vector<double> v);
```

Simple	$\{2, 1, 2\} \rightarrow 2$
(Edge) Special	$\{3, 2, 2, 3\} \rightarrow 2$
Stress	$\{2, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3\}$ (in 281 maybe)

Example – Unit Tests

- Let's take a look at some unit tests for project 1.

```
void test_mean_basic() {  
    std::vector<double> data = {1, 2, 3};  
    double expected = 2;  
    double actual = mean(data);  
    assert(actual == expected);  
    ...  
}
```

If this fails, we need to debug the implementation of mean.

```
int main() {  
    test_mean_basic();  
    test_mean_edge();  
    test_median_basic();  
    ...  
}
```

The Small Scope Hypothesis

- *Thorough testing with “small” test cases is sufficient to find most bugs within a system.*
- Think about what makes two test cases meaningfully different for the function’s behavior.
 - Beyond a small size, just making test cases bigger doesn’t make them meaningfully different.
 - Testing with {1, 1, 2, 2, 2} is just as good as testing with {1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2} or {1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2}.

!!WARNING!!



- Your P1 functions must work as specified WHEN RUN BY THEMSELVES
 - Just because your "summarize" function generates the correct output, doesn't mean the individual functions are correct
 - Unit test each of your functions individually to verify they work for all valid input

Regression test

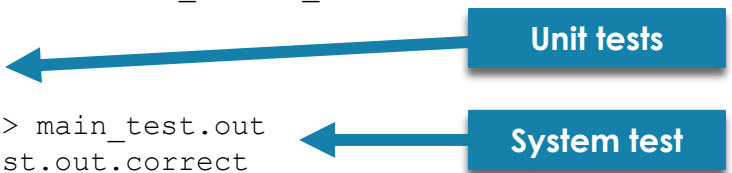
- A regression test runs all unit and system tests automatically
- Make a change to your code? Quickly run a regression test and see if you broke anything
- We'll use a Makefile to run our regression test

Makefile

- Code provided in P1 Makefile for regression test

```
# Makefile
# Run regression test
test: main.exe stats_tests.exe stats_public_test.exe

./stats_public_test.exe
./stats_tests.exe
./main.exe < main_test.in > main_test.out
diff main_test.out main_test.out.correct
```



- Run regression test at the command line:
- \$ make test

Test driven development

- Write your tests first!
 - Encourages a high level understanding of the spec before implementing
 - Prevents "tunnel vision" of what tests to write
 - If you write tests after implementing code, you'll only consider the bugs you've already put effort into preventing
- Write implementations and test/debug until it passes ALL of your tests

Debugging mean

- The essential nature of debugging is to figure out precisely where your program goes wrong.
- We can narrow down where the problem is by observing the state of the program at key points.

```
double mean(vector<double> v) {  
    double s = sum(v);  
    //set breakpoint here to observe s  
  
    double c = count(v);  
    //set breakpoint here to observe c  
  
    return s / c;  
}
```

Think of debugging as hypothesis testing.

For example, this line tests the hypothesis "something is wrong with the sum function".

➡ Using print statements can be kind of clunky. The setup tutorial shows you how to use a debugger

Poll Question

Which do YOU this is / will be hardest? (No wrong answer)

- A) Implementing a spec
- B) Writing tests
- C) Debugging
- D) All roughly the same

Agenda

- Testing and debugging
- **Pointers**

Pointers Motivation

- Reference variables allowed us to do more things than default ones
 - Allows functions to modify objects created outside the scope they were created
- However, references can sometimes be clunky
 - We can't rebind reference variables to new objects
- Pointers are more flexible

```
void swap(int& x, int& y) {  
    int temp = x;  
    x = y;  
    y = temp;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int a = 3;  
    int b = 7;  
    swap(a, b);  
    // a and b get modified  
}
```


Recap: Addresses

- Every object lives at some address in memory
 - This is determined by the compiler. You don't really have any control over it.
- You can get the address of an object using the '&' operator

```
main
0x1004 5.5 y
0x1000 3 x
```

```
int main() {
    int x = 3;
    double y = 5.5;
    cout << &x << endl; // prints 0x1000
    cout << &y << endl; // prints 0x1004
}
```

Addresses usually printed in
"hexadecimal notation"

You don't need to understand for
this class

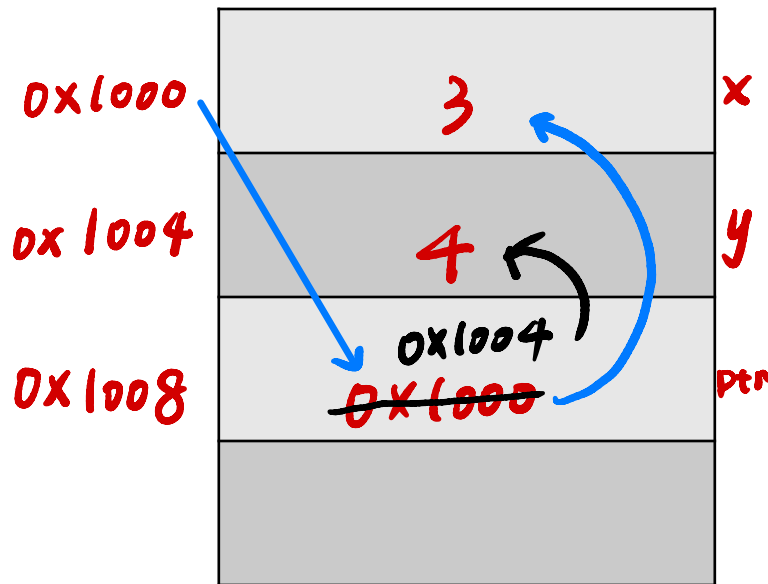
Pointers

- We can also create objects to store addresses. These are called pointers.
- To declare a pointer variable, affix the `*` symbol to the right of the data type

```
int main() {  
    int x = 3;  
    int y = 4;  
    int* ptr = &x;  
    cout << ptr << endl; // prints 0x1000  
    ptr = &y; // assign a new address to ptr  
    cout << ptr << endl; // prints 0x1004  
}
```

Unlike reference variables, we can reassign pointers

Memory diagram



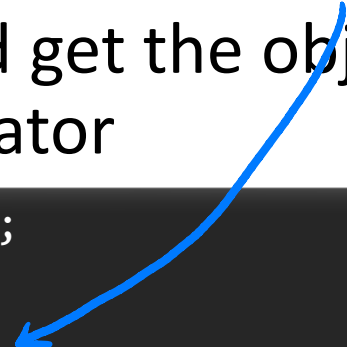
Dereferencing Pointers

- Once you have a pointer, you can “dereference” (i.e. follow that pointer and get the object it’s looking at) via the ‘*’ operator

What is the data type of `&*p`?

- A) `int`
- B) `int*`
- C) `int&`
- D) `int*&`

```
int x = 3;
int* p;
p = &x;
cout << *p; // prints 3 (not address)
(*p)++;
cout << *p; // prints 4
cout << x; // also prints 4
```



Pass by Pointer

What should we pass into "swap_p"?

- A) a, b
- B) *a, *b
- C) &a, &b

- Pointers give us an alternative to "passing by reference"

```
void swap(int& x, int& y) {  
    int temp = x;  
    x = y;  
    y = temp;  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    int a = 3;  
    int b = 7;  
    swap(a, b);  
}
```

```
void swap_p(int* x, int* y) {  
    int temp = *x;  
    *x = *y;  
    *y = temp;  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    int a = 3;  
    int b = 7;  
    swap_p( ?? );  
}
```

Pointer Details

- There is a separate pointer type for each kind of thing you could point to, and you can't mix them.

```
int main() {  
    int x = 3;  
    double y = 4;  
    int* ptr1 = &x;  
    double* ptr2 = &y;  
    ptr2 = &x; // compiler error!  
} double int
```

data type miss match

Using Pointers in Expressions

- Dealing with pointer expressions can be confusing
- It can be helpful to keep track of what data type each object is
 - Using '&' next to an object yields an object with an extra '*' in the data type
 - Using '*' next to a pointer object yields an object with one fewer '*' in the data type

```
int x = 3;
```

```
int* p;
```

```
p = &x;
```

```
int y;
```

```
y = *p;
```

Why Pointers?

- Main tool which lets you do more in 280 vs. 183/101
- Where we'll get to: can create places in memory with no name, need to use pointers

Note on Notation

- I've been declaring pointer types this way

```
int* ptr1 = &x; // space after *
```

- But you can also do it this way


```
int *ptr1 = &x; // space before *
```

- The second one is more common in practice

Null and Uninitialized Pointers

- A null pointer has value 0x0 (i.e. it points to address 0)
 - No objects are allowed to live at address 0.
 - A null pointer is interpreted as "not pointing to anything".
 - Dereference a null pointer → undefined behavior (usually a runtime error).

```
int main() {  
    int *ptr = nullptr;  
    cout << ptr << endl;  
    // prints 0  
    cout << *ptr << endl;  
    // probably crashes  
}
```



Exercise: Pointers 4



resolve the problem

- Find the file “L03.4_pointer_mischief” on Lobster.

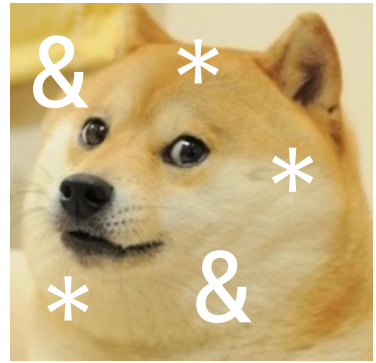
```
int * getAddress(int x) {  
    return &x; // It's a trap!  
}  
  
void printAnInt(int someInt) {  
    cout << someInt << endl;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int a = 3;  
    int *ptr = getAddress(a);  
    printAnInt(42);  
    cout << *ptr << endl;  
}
```

Why is it a trap?

- A) Can't return pointers from functions
- B) anInt became a reference to x
- ☒ C) The lifetime of the parameter x ended before ptr was used
- D) ptr became uninitialized when printAnInt was called

The address not change
but the value located on
that address changed

So Many * and &



- Used to specify a type...

- * means it's a pointer
- & means it's a reference

```
int* ptr;
```

```
int& ref;
```

- Used as an operator in an expression...

- * means get object at an address

```
cout << *ptr << endl;
```

- & means take address of an object

```
cout << &x << endl;
```

References vs. Pointers

References	Pointers
<code>int& x</code>	<code>int* x</code>
An alias for an object	Stores address of an object
<u>Cannot</u> rebind to another object	<u>Can</u> change where it points
<u>Cannot</u> refer to NULL (safer)	<u>Can</u> point to NULL (trickier)

```
int main() {  
    int x = 3;  
    int& y = x;  
    int* z = &x;  
}
```

What can you do with pointers?

- Work with objects indirectly.
 - “Simulate” reference semantics.
 - Use objects across different scopes.
 - Enable subtype polymorphism.¹
 - Keep track of objects in dynamic memory.¹

¹ We'll look at these later in the course.

Next Time

- Arrays
 - Probably more depth than what you've seen before
 - They have a deep relationship with pointers
- Lingering questions / feedback? I'll include an anonymous form at the end of every lecture:
<https://bit.ly/3oXr4Ah>

